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individuality or freedom. Such an idea, however, would at once be dispelled by the careful perusal of the volume. In many places it is made perfectly evident that the teachers are expected to continue their professional studies, to read the current literature, and to do their own thinking on educational matters.

Again, the detailed rules and directions for the memorizing of texts might easily lead one to suppose that these teachers practiced the "cramming" system. This impression, however, would be speedily corrected by a perusal of the excellent little article on "The End of Teaching" (p. 48), from which we quote the following: "Instruction is a precise and systematized body of knowledge which the pupil assimilates by personal work: *precise*, for no one is an instructed man who has only vague, obscure, incomplete ideas of things; *systematized*, for to know properly is to know things in their causes, and consequently to link together in the mind principles and consequences, laws and their phenomena; *assimilated*, for true knowledge is nothing artificial, applied to the mind from without or simply stored in the memory, but it consists of systems of truth that become an integral part of the mind, and are organized in it to become as active as itself. . . . The school should prepare its pupils, not for examinations and competitions, but for life. . . . In other words, it is not *crammed* heads, but trained ones, that do the best and most practical thinking."

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*The Elements of Sociology.* By FRANK W. BLACKMAR. New York: The Macmillan Co. Pp. xi+454. \$1.25.

Professor Blackmar has brought together his material from many sources, and acknowledges that he is indebted to a large number of students and writers of sociology whose scholarly work and scientific investigations have made the science of sociology possible. His object is to "present a brief outline of sociology, founded on the principles established by standard authorities on the subject." "It is intended to be a working manual for the student."

The book does not possess the originality or unity of Dealey and Ward's books. It is broadly eclectic. On the other hand, it is more practicable as a textbook for beginners, and will serve a useful purpose, not only as a textbook, but for intelligent general readers and social workers who wish to gain a social attitude of mind in relation to all varieties of man's activity.

After a brief discussion of the nature and import of sociology, the author discusses in turn: "Socialization and Social Control," "Social Ideals," "Social Pathology," "Methods of Social Investigation," and "The History of Sociology."

There is a good index, and, at the close of each chapter, references are given, "not as a bibliography of the subject treated, but for comparative reading for students."

*A Text-Book of Sociology.* By JAMES QAYLE DEALEY AND LESTER FRANK WARD. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1905. Pp. xvii+326. \$1.30.

This book is an epitome of what Dr. Ward has written. It therefore has the merits and demerits of an epitome. It gives in brief and consecutive form the kernel of Dr. Ward's thought in every field of human activity.

The domains of biology, anthropology, philosophy, psychology, economics, political science, religion, and sociology are all gleaned of their richest harvests to furnish a bill-of-fare for the reader of this book.

Every subject has an historical and logical setting—nothing stands by itself. It follows, therefore, that the book makes great demands upon the reader's power of digestion. Such condensed meat is not for the average student of the high school or first-year college classes. Only those who have had considerable training in the biological sciences, history, economics, and psychology will be able to get much good from the book. To the student so prepared, however, who will read also widely both from Ward's larger works and from other works mentioned in the text, this little book will prove of great value. To him it will give a new and strong sense of unity and continuity in human life and achievement. In him, henceforth, because of his study of this book, will tend to abide a stronger faith in that "increasing purpose" which Tennyson believes to run through all the ages. To such a student also this brief text should come like an individual call to arms in the service of his fellow-men, under the banner of this "increasing purpose."

There is an introduction of five chapters devoted to the claims of sociology to be a science and showing its relation to other sciences. Five parts follow, devoted respectively to: "The Origin and Classification of the Social Forces," "Nature of the Social Forces," "Action of the Social Forces in the Spontaneous Development of Society," "Origin and Nature of the Telic Agent," and "Action of the Telic Agent in Social Achievement."

The authors believe that everything that tends to develop biological structure, or an institution along the same line, is statical. Only when the type of structure or institution is changed is the process dynamic. Hitherto these dynamic changes in human society have come about almost entirely through a clash of tribes, races, and peoples. This method is slow, wasteful, and unconscious, like the method of nature in the biological world. It will long continue, but it can be supplemented and finally be largely supplanted by the conscious socialization of human achievement through universal education. The last paragraph of the book reads:

"The action of society in inaugurating and carrying on a great educational system, however defective we may consider the system to be, is undoubtedly the most promising form thus far taken by collective achievement. It means much even now, but for the future it means nothing less than the complete social appropriation of that individual achievement which has civilized the world. It is the crowning act in the long list of acts that constitute the socialization of achievement."

The disturbing query to many who also believe in education is this: How far, after all, do the most, even of the wisest, of us yet act according to knowledge, in comparison with our acts according to physical and social impulse and feeling? A scientific basis for this query is so well stated by Professor Veblin, in the Current March number of the *American Journal of Sociology*, that a part of his last paragraph may well be quoted here for comparison with the main thesis of the book under discussion:

"The quest of science is relatively new. It is a cultural factor not comprised, in anything like its modern force, among those circumstances whose selective action in the far past has given to the race the human nature which it now has. The race reached the human plane with little of this searching knowledge of facts; and throughout the greater part of its life-history on the human plane it has been accustomed to make its higher generalizations and to formulate its larger principles of life in other

terms than those of passionless matter-of-fact. This manner of knowledge has occupied an increasing share of men's attention in the past, since it bears in a decisive way upon the minor affairs of workday life; but it has never until now been put in the first place as the dominant note of human culture. The normal man, such as his inheritance has made him, has therefore good cause to be restive under its dominion."

HENRY W. THURSTON

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*School Funds and Their Apportionment.* By ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY. Published by Teachers College, Columbia University, 1905. Pp. 255. \$1.50.

One of the difficult problems of school administration is that of school maintenance. Adequate instruction calls for a careful financing of the public-school system, and the expense of public education has become so great that only the shrewdest methods should be in control. The indisposition of many to contribute freely to the support of the schools is largely due to the want of adequate returns from their investments. A partial remedy is to be found in "a more general equalization of both the burdens and the advantages of educators." This is the topic studied by the author.

In current pedagogical literature there is frequent discussion of this problem. Such discussion, however, is largely that of personal opinion based on very limited observation. On the other hand, Dr. Cubberley has used a strictly scientific method: he has collected an enormous amount of detailed data relative to school funds. These facts he has carefully studied, and has by them been led to very definite conclusions. The author begins his study with the hypothesis that there are great inequalities in the burden of supporting the public schools, and that these can be much lessened by a modification of the method of distributing school funds.

Chapters 2, 3, and 4 set forth these inequalities. Massachusetts is first taken as a type. It is seen that the burden of supporting schools in various localities is generally in inverse ratio to the means of support, as measured by the wealth of such localities. A study of several other states shows the same relation. If, as is here maintained, the schools are for the commonweal rather than for individuals and for towns, then this situation is unfortunate. These inequalities are largely due to the centralization of population, industry, and wealth. In the larger centers the wealth increases more rapidly than the population. This increases the inequalities in the burden of supporting public schools under present arrangements for distributing school funds.

Chapters 7-12 discuss nine distinct methods of distributing school funds, no one of which is found adequate. That on the basis of taxes, property valuation, or total population has no educational significance at all. The last one is also very inaccurate. All but four of the states and territories take a school census and use this, at least in part, as a basis for distribution of school funds. This is the most common basis used, but is also one of the most defective. This, with the enrolment and average membership bases, is found guilty of "padding" to increase the income. The daily "average attendance" basis approaches that of "payment by results," but it neglects the length of the school term and is otherwise defective. Since the leading expense is the payment of teachers, the number of teachers employed would be a good basis, if used in combination with other methods. This would place a premium on the employment of more teachers.

The constructive portion of this study is in chap. 13, which sets forth a combination basis emphasizing distribution largely determined by local effort and local